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ON SLATE AND SLATE QUARRIES.

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CHAPTER I.—COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE.

Slate is principally silicate of alumina, with iron and alkalis, mixed with quartz. Dr. Bischoff gives the analysis of various specimens: we select two, of greyish-black colour, from different localities, both being of the kind popularly termed good slates:—

No. 1—From Bondorf. No. 2—From Lesteln.	
Silica	62.59 64.58
Alumina	16.88 17.10
Protoxide of iron	8.42 7.43
Lime	0.24 0.16
Magnesia	2.26 2.29
Potash	3.31 2.23
Oxide of copper	0.13 0.39
Carbonate of lime	1.22 0.53
Water	4.03 4.08
Carbon and loss	0.92 0.63

The same chemist gives the analysis of thirty-six specimens, all slightly varying in the proportions of their contents, but all predominating in silica, alumina, iron, and alkali. Green slates contain a large proportion of iron. The average specific gravity of slate is 2.4 to 2.7 per cubic inch—about 1½ oz. Its ordinary composition is as follows:—

Silica	48 to 60
Alumina	23 to 5
Magnesia	1 to 6
Oxide of iron	11 to 8
Oxide of manganese	A trace to 5
Potash	4 to 7
Carbon	A trace to 3
Water	7 to 6

The common occurrence of what is called riband-slate throws considerable light on the original condition and structure of the rock. It is the proof of original sedimentary deposition under the influence of present laws. Mr. Sorby, who has investigated this subject with his usual success, sums up the result as follows:—

- 1.—The existence of ripple-drift proves that the material from which the schists were formed was mechanically deposited in water.
- 2.—This material originally constituted grains of sand, and was probably a deposit of more or less pure sand and clay.
- 3.—Whatever may have been their original nature, the present highly crystallised structure of the schists was developed after deposition; in some cases, indeed, after mechanical movements had produced complicated contortions, and given rise to slaty cleavage.
- 4.—The bands of different minerals represent the planes of original deposition, rendered very distinct by the alteration of thin strata (which in unaltered rocks often differ more in chemical composition than in appearance) into layers of minerals having entirely different mineral character.*

It is difficult to avoid all speculation on the origin of things when we are prying into the first steps of the order in which they now appear. We trace back the mode and condition of physical materials, but we are still at an infinite distance from their origin.

Assuming that elements were first created, and that from them were elaborated alkalies, lime, magnesia, silica, and alumina, the action of the gases and water would give rise to chlorides and sulphides, with separation of silica, and the accumulation of the atmospheric waters would form a sea charged with salts of soda, lime, and magnesia. The subsequent decomposition of exposed surfaces of the earth's crust, under the influence of water and carbonic acid, would transform the felspathic portions into a silicate of alumina (clay-slate), on the one hand, and alkaline bi-carbonate, the source of limestone, on the other.† The vast series of argillaceous strata now on the earth would appear, therefore, to have been formed by the decomposition of the felspathic minerals which constitute the lowest known rocks.

These riband markings occur not only in the lines of original bedding, but are sometimes the result of slopes or hollows in the beach, which become filled with materials drifted in, so as to lie at a different angle to that of the entire bed. Such work may be seen going on continually on any sandy shore, especially where there is a periodical influx of mud, or small runlets of fresh water; indeed, all the phenomena of structure and stratification in slate (not the cleavage or joints) are repeated on the margin of the present waters. The Indus, for instance, is constantly carrying down vast quantities of fine mud, held in suspension, which, by its deposit, becomes a floor, capable, under pressure and metamorphism, of furnishing a slate-bed for future times. The present is linked to the past by a continuous chain of natural phenomena, though the effects produced in the latter appear to have been far more considerable in equal times than the results we now witness in progress.

With regard to the light which the minute structure of slate throws on its origin, Prof. Bischoff says—"There is no doubt as to the purely sedimentary origin of primitive clay-slate. The presence in it of a silicate of lime and magnesia would be evidence of the existence of those substances in the sea-water from which it was deposited." The minute particles of slate are not crystalline in their form, but are like sea-sand; in fact, slate is precipitated mud. In good slate, such as that of North Wales, there may be seen mica, a portion of decomposed felspar, grains of quartz sand, and phosphate of iron. The colouring matter is iron in the form of minute crystals. The iron exists in the state of a peroxide in the reddish varieties. The black are coloured by pyrites. There is every gradation of composition, and much depends on the proportions, but more on the treatment to which the mass has been subjected. The particular hue is derived from the presence of substances which in the original sea or river sediment had the property of effecting the reduction of the peroxide of iron, an effect which would have been produced by the presence of animal or vegetable matters. It may be that the green colour of some of the older slates is the memorial left of the earliest life on the globe. The green or pale spots are fine clayey portions, with less iron than the surrounding mass. They were lumps of fine white material, which have been cut through by the cleavage forces, forming a spot the diminishing size of which in successive slates shows the size and form of the original lump. The parallel stripes or shades of colour, so often seen both in the face of quarries and in single slates, are, as before observed, marks of original deposition, arising from varying materials or conditions. Pressure and cleavage have obliterated the original divisions, leaving only the colour to mark their former existence. These marks appear, as is

well known, on the surface of manufactured slates. The riband-slates, or striped slates, do not command the first price in the market, on account of some remaining tendency to break in the direction of the stripe, the original line of separation. The joints in slates are of use in forming a smooth face, and so aiding the extraction of large blocks uninjured; but when the joints are numerous and complicated, so as to reduce the mass of slate into an aggregate of pieces of less size than slates, they are, of course, damaging and fatal to the value of the rock.

The most frequent interruption in slate veins is the occurrence of a hard refractory bed of greenstone, or trappan matter, or mere siliceous grit, termed a "harda" or "post," which interrupts the cleavage, and distorts the structure for some space on each side, generally accompanied with the giving off of small quartz veins; the result being not only a barren portion of material through the quarry for the space affected, but the introduction of an element of uncertainty, for these hard runs of matter frequently enlarge, and spoil many yards of rock, and sometimes make the difference in working between profit without them and loss with them. They occur as constantly as the slate itself, and are well known in every quarry.

The groundwork of our scientific knowledge regarding the structure of slate was laid by Prof. Sedgwick, in his "Remarks on the Structure of large Mineral Masses, and especially on Chemical Changes produced in the Aggregation of Stratified Rocks during different Periods after their Deposition," published in the Transactions of the Royal Geological Society of London, in the year 1835. It had previously been observed by Mr. Bakewell ("Introduction to Geology," p. 103), and by Dr. Macculloch, in his "Description of the Western Islands of Scotland" (vol. 3, plate 22, fig. 6), that the divisional lines of slate are different to those of the bedding of the rock; but the Cambridge philosopher was the first to define and accurately describe the phenomena, so as to bring the facts into scientific order for practical use. A glance at any slate quarry discloses different systems of lines; one set are usually vertical to the run of the strata, and are neither strictly parallel or equidistant—they are smooth-sided actual divisions, and are termed the joints. They cut up the mass into irregular angular columns and wedges. Jointed surfaces are useful for building purposes, but are wholly inapplicable either for flagstones or slates. Another set of lines are observable, parallel to each other, dividing the mass into layers, often accompanied by slight changes in colour. These indicate lines of bedding, or original deposition of the materials. The top of each layer, when exposed, shows by the traces of ripple-marks or smooth hollows, and sometimes by occurrence of organic remains, that these once formed true upper surfaces. When a piece of such a layer is broken off it is a flagstone, not, commercially speaking, a slate.

On getting close to the face of the rock, we may notice that the blocks of rock removed by the aid of the jointing and bedding break in a direction slightly varying from the latter. This third plane of fracture is cleavage—a tendency to split in a uniform, even direction, at equal distances. The line of splitting is not coincident with either of the other two lines; it is more persistent and uniform in its parallelism than either; it lies at an angle averaging one in three from the line of bedding, strictly the same in any one quarry, but usually varying in different districts. In some places it is coincident with the bedding, in others it makes an angle of 40°. Whatever is the angle of cleavage it runs the same throughout the whole mass of rock exposed, even though its materials may be different, irrespective of bedding, irrespective of joints, irrespective of flexures and folds in the strata, irrespective of the irregularities of the surface. For instance, beds of impure limestone and coarse slate, with abundant shells, are seen in a gorge on the west side of Moel Faur, about two miles from Llanrhaidar, in North Wales; the beds dip to the S.E., at an angle of about 25°, but the cleavage of the slates—i.e., the dip of the cleavage planes—is nearly north-west, at an angle of 48°. The limestone beds break most freely in the direction of the cleavage lines. Whatever cleavage force was, therefore, it was propagated through the limestone as well as the slate.*

Cleavage was so confidently mistaken for stratification by Saussure and older observers that the notion that the modern strata at the foot of the Alps plunged beneath the more ancient formations there was constantly maintained; indeed, it was a necessary consequence of the imperfect observation which had adopted the slaty structure as the effect of original deposition. Mr. Poulett Scrope attributes the phenomena of slaty cleavage to the influence of extreme pressure, occasioning internal movements and mutual friction in the particles of the solid mass, under which they became rearranged, so as to produce lamination. He supposes these forces to have been brought into play by the same force which has bent, contorted, and elevated the beds.† Mr. Sorby, who has investigated the structure of slate with the microscope, has found that cleavage is just the result of pressure, that when the materials are fine and uniform there will be fine cleavage, because there has been uniform yielding to the pressure, and consequent uniform re-arrangement; but when the materials are coarse there will be imperfect cleavage, as the substance will pucker, and become folded, and not cleaved. He describes appearances in slate rocks, which include coarse beds, to be analogous to what occurs when a strip of paper is included in a mass of some soft material, and the whole compressed in the direction of the slip of paper; the paper would be bent into contortions, whilst the plaster material would readily change its dimensions. A close examination of the structure evidences that there has been pressure in a line perpendicular to the cleavage, which has produced elongation in the line of cleavage dip. He calculates that in the fine-grained slates the condensation from pressure has been equal to one-half of the original volume.

Mr. Sorby encounters the difficulty of those who ask how such things can be by affirming that the facts are so. Perhaps it may be said—How is it possible that hard rocks could have had their dimensions changed to the extent described? To this I would reply—If the rocks be examined it will be seen that it really has occurred; and I would suggest that solidity is but a comparative property, and that the intensity of the forces in action during the elevation of a range of mountains could gradually change the dimensions of rocks, for it is well known that many hard and brittle substances will admit of such movements, as, for instance, the ice of glaciers and hard and brittle pitch.‡

Prof. Hausmann, of Göttingen, has collected instances showing

the effect of long-continued heat in changing the molecular condition of solid bodies into laminated structure, without change of external form. Prof. Tyndall, in lecturing at the Royal Institution, exhibit proof that cleavage may be produced by mere lateral pressure. It causes a lump of fine white wax to be compressed at its two side until perfect cleavage structure is produced, and it flakes off in plate like slate. The wax is kneaded together with the fingers, and then placed between plates of wetted glass. In this state it has no divisional planes—no grain. But pressure induces a re-arrangement, and it becomes separable in plates, with small flakes clinging to the surfaces, just like slates when split from the block.

When rocks, originally sedimentary, are crystallised in the mass, the lines of original deposition are called foliations. The lines of bedding, or foliation, are, of course, the most ancient; joints next, though the jointing process has been continued down almost to the present day, inasmuch as any contraction or removal of pressure, or drying operation, will still produce them. Cleavage is of several epochs, all subsequent, of course, to perfect consolidation. Prof. Ramsay says that there was a first and strongest cleavage in the Cambrian, Lingula, and Tremadoc slates, before the deposition of the Upper Silurian; then a second and more partial cleavage, well marked around Llangollen.

One of the most remarkable instances of intense cleavage is recorded by Prof. Ramsay (North Wales, p. 145) as occurring in a conglomerate on the north of Llyn Padarn. Part of the conglomerate "consists of slaty pebbles, in a slaty matrix, the whole being affected by slaty cleavage, remarkable on account of the pebbles being elongated in the direction of the cleavage lines, and obliquely to the planes of bedding, in accordance with which, under ordinary circumstances, the flat side of the pebbles would naturally lie, this arrangement being due to intense pressure, which, in all cases of slaty cleavage, caused the particles composing the rock to arrange themselves approximately at right-angles to the direction of the force."

It will be seen from the description of the strata in which slaty veins occur, that they have been subjected to ruder changes than metamorphism. There have been elevatory forces and depressing forces brought into play, of a magnitude almost inconceivable. There have been granite and trappan outbursts, rending the whole series; there have been more numerous instances of subterranean forces which have lifted the whole area into domes, or depressed it into basins, by deprivation of support. The result of the whole has been as we see it—a state of things sufficiently irregular to display all the wealth of the earth's crust, and yet sufficiently orderly to enable it to be worked scientifically and economically. Some amount of trappan matter appears to be essential to the production of good slate, but greenstone dykes actually destroy the cleavage of rocks in which they occur. They convert the slate into a hard porcellaneous silicious rock; or, according to its constituents, degrade it into an incoherent decomposing substance.

METAMORPHISM.—It is proved by various lines of evidence—for instance, by the condition of organic remains, by tracing chemical changes, and by following extensions of strata from one condition to another,—that most of the older rocks have undergone chemical action since their original deposition. The action has metamorphosed them in composition and appearance. Metamorphism is not, therefore, so much a term of classification as a statement of condition, common to nearly every class of rock, but most conspicuously displayed in the old rocks with which slate is associated. The term metamorphic, when used as a term of classification, denotes stratified crystalline rocks, which although resulting, so far as regards their present strata, from chemical forces, were yet originally mere mud or sand deposits. In some cases, as in that of the dolomites, the stratification is entirely obliterated. Metamorphism has been effected in one of two ways. In some cases by heat, by contact with igneous molten matter, hot gases, or steam; or in the cold and moist way, by gradual chemical changes in the constituents of the rocks themselves. Perhaps no sedimentary substance which now forms the solid crust of the earth remains in the condition in which it was first deposited. The forces of heat, led on by direct transmission from another source, or generated by chemical action, the action of heated steam and vapours, the slow re-arrangements of solid bodies packed within reach of each other, the sliding effect of pressure, the development whenever inferior resistance permitted of crystalline forms—all these and other agencies, acting under invincible law, have modified the original sediments so as to produce the useful material we now possess.

COAL IN INDIA.—There has been a great discovery of coal in the central provinces. The district of Chanda lies due south of Nagpore, between that and the River Wurdah, which forms the northern boundary of Hyderabad. For some years Capt. Lucie Smith, the deputy-commissioner, has been boring for coal, and Mr. Mark Fryar, the practical geologist sent out lately to report on our coal resources, has more than confirmed his estimate of the value of his discoveries. Mr. Morris, the officiating chief commissioner, has written with great caution on the subject, until Messrs. Mather and Platt's steam borer, which has been sent for, arrives. But ordinary borings, and the opinions of Mr. Medicott, geological surveyor, Mr. Bonner, C.E., and Mr. Fryar, reveal a vast thick and uniform deposit of coal, which has led the last to urge Government to begin mining operations at once, and to make a branch railway to the main Great India Peninsula line. The sandstones of the Chanda basin are the same as the well-known coal-bearing sandstones of Ranegunge, to which, indeed, Mr. Fryar compares the deposit in value and extent; he is confident that there are at least two square miles of coal, 14 ft. thick, at a depth of 300 ft., and in easy working position, on the Chanda side of the Wurdah, while there is a certainty of more than the same area on the other side. This practical and cautious Government geologist declares that the coal can be laid down by branch railway at Nagpore at 17. a ton, giving a profit of 10s., while a ton of English coal costs 17. 16s. at Bombay, and double that at Nagpore. If we so far discredit the Chanda coal as to say a ton of it is equal to only half a ton of English coal, it will still have 16s. in its favour at Nagpore. All India at present turns out 600,000 tons of coal a year, not more than the produce of one good colliery in England, and the two square miles of Chanda coal would give the same supply for thirty years. Labour is abundant, and the mines would prove a boon to a poor population. This is not all. The finest, if not the largest, cotton mart in India lies between Chanda and the main line of railway—that is Hingunghat, the cotton of which is so good that its seed is being introduced wherever the Sea Island and Egyptian varieties do not suit the inland climate. The Chanda coal field is to the south

* Quarterly Journal Geological Society, vol. 9, p. 496.
† Sterry Hunt, Quarterly Journal, vol. 15, p. 488.

* Quarterly Journal Geological Society, vol. 12, p. 247, and vol. 15, p. 84.
† Id., p. 476.
‡ Sorby, Origin of Slaty Cleavage. Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, 1853.

of Hingunghat, and to the north of the finest cotton districts of Hyderabad. Cross the Wurdah to the south and you come to Edulabad, the cotton of which is so good that an English merchant has just laid out 10,000*l.* there, intending to send the produce down the river Godavery, of which the Wurdah is the main affluent, to Coconada. A branch line for the cotton alone was long ago projected to Hingunghat. Now there is the coal. If even half of Mr. Fryar's expectations are realised, the least known part of India will be opened up, and the feudatory provinces of the Nizam, who will be a minor for the next 14 years, will be enriched, while they are made to contribute their wealth of cotton and coal to the general good. Ultimately the line must be continued due south to Hyderabad, the capital, which is to be connected to the westward also with the Madras line to Bombay.

LEAD MINING IN WALES AND THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.

[FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.]

One would not unreasonably suppose that the discovery of great metallic wealth was the most unalloyed benefit that could befall a country, for there a treasure is gained from Nature herself with an amount of labour quite disproportionate to its value to mankind. When new countries are opened out to agricultural labour, it requires at least a couple of generations of weary toil and self-denial before any surplus wealth can begin to accumulate; but the metallic discoveries of modern days operate changes, and bring about a growth of wealth, as rapid as any imagined by romancers. A few years ago—so few that to me it seems almost like yesterday—the Comstock vein had not been trodden by the foot of a white man, and now it has returned metallic ores to the value of about 20,000,000*l.* sterling, and been the means of spreading population and civilisation through countries which otherwise must have remained deserts for another century. It is the same in our own country, where the remotest wilds of Wales, Yorkshire, Cumberland, and Cornwall have been suddenly transformed by metalliferous discoveries into busy scenes of industry, comfort, and wealth. Yet such is the perversity of human nature, that metallic discoveries, which ought to have been the source of unalloyed prosperity, have not unfrequently been, on the contrary, the means of inflicting great losses and great misery. A great mine is suddenly discovered, which gives rise to a wild excitement, leading to the senseless and indiscriminate expenditure in its neighbourhood of sums of money probably exceeding in the aggregate all the profits obtained from it. An important metalliferous discovery in any district is a just and proper incentive to a vigorous exploration of that district; but experience, unfortunately, shows us that, with a few rare exceptions, very great metalliferous deposits are generally isolated, and are far from indicating that the neighbourhood around them will be found equally productive of metallic wealth. I might readily fill many pages of the Journal with instances of this which have occurred in various parts of the world, but my present purpose will be sufficiently served by recalling to the minds of your readers a few instances which must be familiar to the majority of them.

First and foremost stands Devon Consols, in the neighbourhood of which after its discovery scores of mines were started, and an incredible expenditure incurred, without a single serious success worth mentioning. Going west across the Tamar, the Devon Consols lode seems to multiply itself, for on the Cornish side of the river numerous lodes have been opened on through a great width of ground, from north to south, each claiming to be the veritable Wheal Maria lode. Now, although most of these lodes were highly promising, and only separated by a stream from the greatest copper mine in Europe, and although during 20 years large sums of money under various and most experienced managers have been expended on them, in no case has any success resulted. Eastward, if possible, the failure has been still more astounding. The original Devon Consols sett had an extent of about two miles on the course of the lode, from the Tamar to the turnpike-road; and close up to this turnpike-road, in Wheal Emma Mine (the easternmost of the mines forming Devon Consols), rich courses of ore were met with. About 10 years ago, on the renewal of the lease, it was considered to be of the utmost importance to acquire the ground east of this road, into which a course of ore seemed to run. A large consideration was, in fact, given for this ground by the Devon Consols Company, and very much larger sums would have been willingly given by other prudent persons; yet, strange to say, this ground, about a mile in length, has never up to the present day, although large sums have been expended on it, returned one shilling to the company. Of other mines in the district most proved immediate failures, and for the adventurers these may be considered less disastrous than those which, like Sortridge Consols, East Russell, North Robert, and others, achieved for a time an ephemeral success, leading in the end to only increased losses.

So far for the greatest copper mine in the kingdom; and the same holds good of Minera, the greatest lead mine as yet opened in England during the present generation. Any of your readers, whose memory goes back 10 years, can readily count up a dozen Mineras of various denominations—north, south, east, west, central, and I know not how many more besides. Yet, during all this period not one permanent mine has established itself within many miles of the great mine whose name they have so freely taken in vain. Reverting to Cornwall, and looking further back, the same is true of the district about Wheal Rose, around which during its period of prosperity mines sprung up like mushrooms, almost every one destined to end in disastrous failure; and even in the West Chiverton district it is worth remarking that no neighbouring mine has as yet achieved the smallest substantial success. The same law—the law of the isolation of great metalliferous deposits—is found to hold in the districts about the Knockmahon and the Berehaven Mines, in Ireland; in the district about the Ecton Mine, in Staffordshire; and in many more I could mention.

I shall not weary your readers by referring further to this, certainly not the most pleasant side of metallic mining; but in a time like the present, when the great discovery made in the Van Mine, which might and ought justly to be made the basis for inducing a large expenditure of public capital in legitimate lead mining in Wales, threatens to generate a senseless and indiscriminate mania, it is well to place before the public the few facts I have mentioned, as showing that the surroundings of a great mine need not necessarily prove successes. There is unquestionably a great deal of ground in the neighbourhood of the Van Mine well worthy of a vigorous trial, and some which may fairly be expected to achieve considerable success. But when any sett picked up within the radius of a few miles, whether a lode has been discovered on it or not, is valued to the public at tens of thousands of pounds, it is well to ask them to bear in mind, as a warning, the indisputable facts I have just stated. Neither in mining, nor, indeed, in any other pursuit that I am aware of, has great success ever been achieved by hanging on to the skirts of another; it is in itself a sign of feebleness, and is justly despised by all really able men. For my own part, I would not value a sett one shilling more for being in the neighbourhood of the Van, or even on the Van lode—if, indeed, any two people could be got to agree as to what, or which, is the Van lode after it has passed a few hundred fathoms from the boundary of the Van sett.

Returning to the VAN MINE itself. The leading idea impressed on the mind of anyone going through this mine is the enormous disproportion between the resources of the mine, as apparent by the underground discoveries, and the means of making these resources available: it is so obviously a mine from which at least twice the amount of ores now sold could readily be produced, if only the means of raising and returning it were available.

This disproportion—which is certainly most remarkable, and entirely beyond anything I have met with in my experience—is due to two causes. In a minor degree it is undoubtedly attributable to the fact that for about two years—and up to within a few months of the present time—the mine had been carried on by executors, who were not in a position to sanction any expenditure except such as was absolutely necessary. But the main cause is in the nature of the lode itself, which, it must be borne in mind, is equal to half a dozen ordinary lodes packed side by side. With such a lode it is fairly impossible to keep pace with the discoveries; which is obvious, if we consider that on it as much ore ground can be laid open in a month as could be done on an ordinary rich lode in a year.

To your mining readers this will be most evident, by comparing the vastness of the discoveries already made with the insignificance

of the extent of the present workings. The maximum depth of these workings from the adit (which is itself, at its deepest point, only 30 fathoms from grass) to the lowest sump is but 30 fathoms; and the greatest length opened on the lode below adit has not reached 100 fms. (even at the adit itself it does not exceed 150 fms.), while the total length of the stopes working is but 50 fms. I need scarcely tell any of your mining readers that such a limited extent of workings would scarcely be noticeable in a large Cornish mine, and that the discovery of at least 500,000*l.* worth of ore in such a compass is without parallel in British mining.

To make matters perfectly clear it may be well to give particulars. The lode, as I have already stated, averages 5 fms. in width (although it at places reaches the great width of 10 fathoms), with a moderate underlie south; and this lode is overlain on its south, or hanging, wall by a great band of shale. The engine-shaft is sunk vertically in the country to the depth of 60 fathoms from grass, where it takes the south wall of the lode just at the 30 fm. level below adit, which is the present bottom of the mine. From opposite this shaft the adit (which is 30 fms. from surface) is driven west about 65 fms., and east about 85 fms.—150 fms. in all; and the 15 fm. level is similarly driven west about 44 fms., and east about 36 fms.—80 fms. in all. The levels in the 30 are only opened on about 12 fms. altogether east and west. It must be understood that at present there is at Van only the one opening to surface—that is, at the engine-shaft.

The present work doing in the mine is as follows:—In the adit, both ends may be said to be driving on the soft hanging part of the lode, each by six men, at 60s. per fathom, although the western end is temporarily suspended for want of air. Both these ends are poor, but show splashes of lead in the dark shale, which is said by those acquainted with the lode to indicate ore beneath. The western end loses ground rapidly, and would ultimately come out in the brook forming the boundary between this mine and Pen-y-Clyn, but the eastern end is approaching a part of the lode which showed very promising at surface in some old shallow workings, and where the ore may, consequently, be expected to make again as shallow as the adit. West of shaft, 55 fms., a rise is being put up on the lode in the back of the adit to meet a shaft sinking from surface, the rising and sinking having both been pushed on by six men each, at 80s. per fm. This communication, which will be effected in a very short time now, is of great importance, for I need scarcely say no satisfactory ventilation can be effected in a mine which has only one shaft open to surface. Below the adit, 54 fms. west of shaft, just under were this new shaft will come down, a winze is sinking by six men, at 110s. per fathom, in a lode worth for the width of the winze about 3 tons per fathom. East of the engine-shaft, 60 fms. or so, another new shaft on the lode will be quickly opened up from adit to surface, by rising and sinking, as soon as that to the westward is communicated.

In the 15, the western end, which is the only one being pushed on at present, is driving by six men, at 105s. per fathom on the south part of the lode. In this end there is a course of ore worth for the width of the level upwards of 3 tons per fathom; and as the winze just mentioned as sinking below the adit on the same part of the lode, about a dozen fathoms in front of this end, is also worth 3 tons per fathom, it is fair to assume that the course of ore between them is continuous. Assuming this, which will be proved in a very short time, the length of the course of ore opened out in the 15 at Van will be 100 fms. instead of 85—the length I gave to the ore ground in my last notice of this mine. Of course it must be understood, in taking the value of this end and winze, that they respectively comprise on an average only about one-eighth of the entire width of the lode, and, consequently, here are rather of value, as indicating the length of the course of ore than as showing the productiveness of the lode at these points. The 15 east, driving on the soft part of the lode, is at present suspended until better ventilation is secured throughout the mine by the communication already mentioned. The 30 has been commenced driving both east and west. As I have already stated, the lode has been cut through at this level 7 fms. wide, worth for the whole width 27 tons to the fathom. Both ends are driving, each by six men, on the south part of the lode; the east end at 90s. per fathom, and the west end at 100s. per fathom, in a splendid lode, particularly the western end, where the whole width of the level is in a course of ore that will turn out fully one-half of pure galena. In the bottom of the 30 six men are cutting a plat, and six men have been set to drive south through the shale, for the purpose of sinking to the 45 for a new level, and rising and sinking for new engine-shaft.

Except what has been raised from the tutwork bargains working on ore, which last month was about 50 tons, the whole of the lead returning in Van is broken from one stope in the back of the 15, extending about 50 fms. in length—that is, about 25 fathoms east and about the same distance west of the shaft. This stope is working by nine pares of men, as follows, taking the bargains from west to east:—The 24 stope west by six men, at 42s. 6d. per fathom; the 16 stope west by six men, at 47s. 6d. per fathom; the 8 stope west by six men, at 47s. 6d. per fathom; the 8 stope east by eight men, at 57s. 6d. per fathom; the 16 stope east by eight men, at 60s. per fathom; the 24 stope east by eight men, at 55s. per fathom; the 8 stope east, on the north part of the lode, by six men, at 50s. per fathom; the 16 ditto by six men, at 50s.; and the 24 ditto by six men, at 52s. 6d. This gives a total of sixty men, at an average of about 51s. 6d. per fm.; and during the last month the total cost of these sixty men was something under 260*l.*, and the quantity of ore raised by them 150 tons. This gives an average of 2½ tons of ore per man, and shows the average cost of breaking the ore to be 34s. 8d. per ton; or, taking the average value of the Van ore, after paying royalty, at 12*l.* 10s. per ton, a tribute cost of, as near as possible, 2s. 9d. in 1*l.* Now, I venture to think that, considering the exceptional system of working adopted at Van, by which the whole of the lode is taken away at once, rich and poor together, it will be difficult to match such an average result as this in any other lead mine in the kingdom. For your nominating readers to understand the force of this comparison, it may be well that I should explain the principle upon which ore ground is usually taken away in mines.

After a good run of ore ground has been driven through in a level, it is set about being opened out, and put in form for being worked away, by rises being put up in the back to the level above, and winzes sunk in the bottom to the level (or towards the future level) beneath. In a lode varying in richness—and all lodes vary more or less—the points selected for these rises and winzes are naturally and properly the richest parts of the lode. When these rises and winzes are communicated to the levels above and below respectively stoping is commenced, and continued so far as the lode remains rich. The moment the lode becomes poorish—not too poor to be worked to a profit, but not rich enough to be worked to a large profit—these stopes are suspended, and the poorer ore ground remaining is kept in reserve for a "rainy day." As long as the mine continues in new levels to open out well, and in mines worth anything this does continue for many years, either in depth or length, this poorish ore ground is allowed to remain, and at last accumulates to a vast extent. This is the case with all lodes, but it is more especially the case with wide ones, in which on either wall, parallel with the richer bunches, it is not unusual to find wide courses of poorish ground which just comes away at a small profit; in the rich days of a mine these parts of the lode are also left standing. Any person going through a mine which has been worked for some years, but which is still rich, will find to what a great extent this is the case. In going through a level the backs of which have been largely worked, he will probably observe to the captain that most of the ore ground in the back of that level has gone to market; and the captain will reply that the best of the ground has certainly so gone, but that there still remain hundreds of fathoms of "tribute ground" to come away some day, when—he will probably add, jokingly—"We shall want it more than we do now."

Thus in almost every rich mine there are (after the first stage of trial) two stages of working. The first stage comprises the period during which the mine continues to open out rich, and during which the richer parts only of the lodes are taken away; while the second comprises the period after which important discoveries have ceased, and during which the mine has to fall back on resources frequently very extensive in themselves, and of a great gross money value, but capable of yielding but a very small profit. Every investor in mines of 25 years standing (and there are a few such) must have noticed this. A mine ends rich, and there follow a dozen or fifteen years of great prosperity, after which dividends quickly dwindle, and then

cease, although the mine itself continues working, and nearly self-sustaining, by making very large returns from this poorish ground for another dozen or fifteen years. These are the two stages (after discovery) of most mines—during the first the mine is worked for the benefit of adventurers, during the second for the benefit of the country.

Now this system of dealing with ore ground is perfectly legitimate, and perfectly proper, although it is, of course, open to abuses, as when such poor ore ground is (as is sometimes the case) valued as "reserves," when, in fact, taking into account all the expenses of the mine, it can never by itself be returned with any profit to the adventurers. But although this system, by which, while a mine is opening out rich, only the cream of the lode is taken away, leaving the poorer portions for a future day, is legitimate enough, it is not the system followed in Van, where, as I have already more than once stated, it has been deemed prudent, in consequence of the enormous size of the lode, and the bad nature of the hanging-wall, to take away the whole lode bodily in one stope, and then fill up with deads. The result is that with a large quantity of rich ground a still greater quantity of poorish ground has to be broken monthly, which reduces considerably the average; and I think it will surprise many people to be told that, in a young and rich mine like Van, of late months it has taken 20 tons of stuff, as broken in the stopes, to produce 1 ton of clean ore. Yet such is the case. To return the 200 tons of ore sold last month fully 3500 tons of ore stuff had to be broken, drawn to surface, crushed down, and put through all the processes of dressing. In the case of a large mine, having an extensive plant of machinery (the putting up of which is essentially a question of time), this would not be of much moment, for in many of our greatest and most profitable lead mines the average value of the ore raised is very low. But in the case of a young mine like Van, which has not been six months in the hands of the present proprietors (up to which time it was worked by executors), and where there has been as yet no time to get up working and dressing appliances, in proportion to the underground discoveries, it has, of course, limited the returns. If the course I have described as being that ordinarily followed in taking away ore ground—of first only taking the cream—had been adopted in Van, the average value of the stuff raised from underground could easily have been more than doubled, and the returns, even with the present dressing power, have been proportionately increased.

But since this course, which although not absolutely in a mining view an improper one, would certainly have been a most rash and imprudent one to have adopted in the case of so peculiar a lode, has been out of the question, the Van shareholders have perforce been content to postpone for at least a year—until adequate machinery and appliances can be put in place—the great returns which, from the underground discoveries, the mine is now capable of making. With the discoveries made in the 30, far richer than anything in the 15 above, this mine may fairly be held capable of returning about 500 tons of lead ore per month when the ground is sufficiently opened and ventilated, and the crushing power and dressing-floors sufficiently extended; and this quantity can be raised at an exceptionally large profit. On the present returns of 200 tons per month (net value, after paying royalty, say 12*l.* 10s. per ton) the profit on the ordinary working cost of the mine is fully two-thirds, or about 20,000*l.* a year. Of course, of this profit a considerable sum is being laid out in new works, and consequently it is not all available for dividends. Increasing returns, and the support of an increased plant of machinery, will, no doubt, increase cost; but, considering how shallow Van is, and how cheap a mine it is in almost every respect to work, I do not at all see that, for many years to come, the cost is at all likely to be more than one-third, leaving two-thirds of the value of the ore raised net profit. This, with a return of 300 tons per month, which may be expected to be reached before the end of this year, will give a profit of 30,000*l.* a year; and the 500 tons per month, when reached another year on, will give 50,000*l.* a year, and place the Van indisputably at the head of British lead mines. And this estimate is irrespective of blende, of which the lode contains large quantities. At present the pressure to dress the lead ore is too great to allow of much attention being given to the less valuable product; but when the floors are extended there can be no doubt very considerable returns of blende will be made monthly, which will add largely to the profits of the mine.

The present cost of dressing the ores at Van is just 20s. per ton—the dressing cost of the last 200 tons having been 202*l.*, which, taking into account the not very high produce of the stuff as broken and raised, and taking also into account that there is a great pressure and crowding of work on the floors at present, must, I consider, be taken as very moderate. However, Capt. Williams estimates that this will shortly be reduced to 15s. per ton, which reduction will be brought about partly by an increase in the floors giving more scope for economical working, and partly by the prospective improvement of produce of the stuff from underground, which, with the richer lode now opening on in the 30, will, it is expected, give 1 ton of clean ore for 15 tons of stuff, instead of 20 tons, as at present.

The motive-power at present at Van is as follows:—One 50-foot water-wheel, 4-ft. breast, which, coupled with a 30-in. cylinder beam double engine, pumps, crushes, winds, and works the jiggling-hutches; one 14-in. horizontal engine, which works Blake's stone-breaker and the sawing-machine; and a pair of 12-in. horizontal cylinders (3-ft. stroke), now nearly ready, which will work the new crusher, and also an 8-in. plunger, which will revolve or throw back the water which has been already used on the floors. There are three crushers on the floors—two with 30-in. rollers and one with a 24-in. roller. There are twenty jiggling-hutches, four round buddles and four flat buddles. The pitwork is 6½ in. from the 30 fm. level to the 15, and 6½ in. and 5 in. from the 15 to adit. The carriage to and fro, from the mine to the railway station at Llanidloes, is 4s. per ton.

MINERS' LAMPS.—Mr. LOUIS DESENS, C.E., of Charing-cross, has specified an improvement on a former patent, which consists in lowering the gallery in the interior of the body of the lamp so as to admit of the whole of the mechanism being closed in by the platform (which in this case is raised above the gallery), the object being to prevent any tampering therewith, and the more effectually to prevent the miners (in the event of their successfully opening the lamp) from relighting it. With this view he makes a circular aperture in the centre of the platform for the reception of a circular metal plate, having in its centre a small tube forming the burner up which the wick passes; this plate is got into position by screwing, two small projections in steel being thereto fixed for this purpose, a check being attached to the interior of the central aperture, the largest of these projections coming in contact with a boss attached to a spring force the latter backward, allowing the projection on the plate of the burner to pass; when this is effected the whole is closed, so that no one unconnected with the secret of opening the lamp can possibly rekindle the wick for lighting. It is by means of the patent mentioned in the former invention that the wick and holder become accessible for re-adjustment. This detail is slightly elongated, so as to admit of its passing through a small slot in the platform, and by pressing it outwards to the left with the thumb the small horizontal shaft at its extremity (as described in his former patent) is brought to bear against the boss on the spring before alluded to, and forcing it back, the projection on the circular plate of the burner is freed, and then by turning the piece it is readily removed either for re-adjusting the wick or refilling the lamp with oil. In all other respects the functions of the several parts mentioned in the previous invention remain unchanged, the object of the present improvement being to effect a further safeguard against relighting or exposing the flame, as any attempt so to do without the knowledge of the secret lock would be futile, as in the event of a miner succeeding in opening the lamp, the light being extinguished, as explained in his former patent, the wick cannot be got at.

PRECIPITATING COPPER, &c.—Messrs. W. A. VEREL, manager, and J. CAMERON, chemist to the Tharsis Sulphur and Copper Company, of Glasgow, have specified their invention for improvements relating to the precipitation of copper and other metals from solutions by iron, and to their extraction from slag or scoria. The invention has for its object to economise the iron used in the precipitation of copper and other metals from solutions, to render the precipitation more rapid and the precipitate purer than in the ordinary process, and to utilise the residuary liquor. In obtaining copper by what is known as the wet or cementation process, as ordinarily practised, the copper contained in iron or copper pyrites or in other ores having been converted by calcination into a salt of copper, such as a sulphate or chloride, is dissolved and washed out from the ore with water. The solution thus formed contains other salts as well as the copper salts, and amongst these per-salts of iron which attack and waste the iron afterwards used for inducing the precipitation of the copper. The first part of the present invention consists in reducing these per-salts to proto-salts by treating the solutions with sulphurous acid or gaseous mixtures containing it, such as may be obtained by burning sulphur or pyrites or other substances containing sulphur. This sulphurous acid combines with the surplus oxygen of the per-salt, and in reducing such salt to a proto-salt is itself converted into sulphuric acid. The application of the sulphurous acid may be effected by means of a tower or canal, or any other convenient arrangement by which the two can be brought into intimate contact. A solution of sulphurous acid may also be used for decolouring the liquor. When the liquors have been decolourised as described, it is found that the subsequent cementation process is effected more rapidly and advantageously. It is preferred, in order to avoid

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